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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the development of school library media programs in the United States and the emerging roles of school library media specialists from a historical perspective and to make inferences about the future of the profession at the edge of the 21st century. The study was divided into six historical stages. The first two stages dealt with school library issues before the 1950s; the last four stages, each representing a decade from the 1950s through the 1980s, traced the emergence of the school library media program and profession. Each stage reflected societal and educational events that affected the profession's evolution and presented technological, social, and educational trends and visions that might influence the future of the school library media profession. The findings imply that the future of the profession depends on the ability of school library media specialists to adapt and cope with rapid changes in the Information Age. Keeping abreast of technological and educational developments and transferring professional expertise through effective interpersonal skills are requisite. It is concluded that the profession must encompass past and present roles with future visions as it continues to emerge in the 21st century. (54 references) (BBM)

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THE EMERGING PROFESSION:

SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS

by

Kathleen Jennings Gailey

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A SCHOLARLY STUDY

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ABSTRACT

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KATHLEEN JENNINGS GAILEY

Purpose

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the development of school library media programs in the United States and the emerging roles of school library media specialists from a historical perspective and to make inferences about the future of the profession at the edge of the twenty-first century.

Methods and Procedures

The study was divided into six historical stages. The first two stages dealt with school library issues before the 1950s; the last four stages, each representing a decade from the 1950s through the 1980s, traced the emergence of the school library media program and profession. Each stage reflected societal and educational events that affected the profession's evolution. The study presented technological, social, and educational trends and visions that might influence the future of the school library media profession.

Inferences

This study implied that the future of the profession depends on the ability to adapt and cope with rapid changes in the Information Age. Keeping abreast of technological and educational developments and transferring professional expertise through effective interpersonal skills are requisite. The study inferred that the profession must encompass past and present roles with future visions as it continues to emerge in the twenty-first century.

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I dedicate my efforts to the memory of Elna Whitfield.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ABSTRACT		ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS		iv
CHAPTER		
1	INTRODUCTION	1
	Overview	1
	Statement of the Problem	3
	Significance of the Study	3
	Assumptions, Delimitations, Limitations	4
	Definitions	4
2	HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS	6
	Before the 1900s	6
	The 1900s to the 1950s	10
	The 1950s	16
	The 1960s	20
	The 1970s	27
	The 1980s	31
3	TRENDS AND FUTURE VISIONS	37
	Technological Trends	38
	Social Trends	45
	Educational Trends	48
4	INFERENCES	64
REFERENCES		68

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

Civilization has progressed through two major eras, the agricultural and industrial stage, and is presently entrenched in a third era. This third era is characterized by advanced technology, the explosion of information, and an upheaval of traditional values and beliefs (Toffler, 1980). When such major shifts occur in civilization, there is no going back to the way it was. These radical shifts do not negate the previous eras because our present civilization is still building on the Agricultural and Industrial revolutions of the past (Adams & Fuchs, 1986).

Naisbitt (1982) suggests that the occupational history of the United States is a good indicator of the metamorphosis of our country. "Farmer, laborer, clerk --that is a brief history of the United States" (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 14). At the turn of the century, farmers constituted more than one-third of the labor force, and by the early eighties, they were less than three percent of the workforce. After the clerk, the second largest classification of employees is the

professional. Professionals, who are in sync with the new information society where knowledge is the critical ingredient, have been in great demand since 1960 (Naisbitt, 1982).

School library media specialists are being thrust into an environment of rapid change as the twenty-first century quickly approaches. The changes in their roles have been a reflection of societal and educational influences. To understand in what direction we are headed as a profession, it is imperative to know where we have been and how our roles have evolved historically. The school library media profession has risen out of this third wave of civilization where information is paramount.

"American education has been, is, and always will be in a state of change" (Woolls, 1988, p. 1). Many educational ideologies have been introduced, implemented, and discarded only to come full circle years later. Woolls (1988) pointed out that "one educational innovation of the twentieth century which has escaped recycling has been the school library" (p. 1).

The school library media profession is an emerging field still in its developmental stages. Library media

specialists are in a precarious position that demands leadership skills for linking media programs and its services to meet the instructional needs of a school community. To become effective educators, change agents, and managers, library media specialists will have to build from the foundations of the past and formulate visions of the future.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this research study will be to investigate the evolution of the school library media program and roles of school library media specialists from a historical perspective and to make inferences about the profession in the twenty-first century. Specifically, this study will seek to answer the following question:

> What inferences can be made about the future of the school library media profession as a consequence of its history?

Significance of the Study

This study will present a historical overview of societal and educational influences that have affected the changes in school library media programs and the

roles of school library media specialist. Learning about our professional heritage could be a vital step in making predictions about our future roles and helping us adapt to change.

Assumptions, Delimitations, Limitations

This study assumes that societal, educational, and technological changes have made an impact on school library media specialists and that these changes have affected them personally and professionally in the perception of their roles.

Definitions

The following definitions clarify terms that will be used in this research study:

1. change agent - a professional who has a major function in advocating and introducing planned innovations into practice (Aaron & Mann, 1977).

2. consigliere - an indirect leader who interacts as a colleague with others; a change facilitator who does not issue directives, but asks, informs, models, suggests, and supports (Wehmeyer, 1987).

3. distance education - education conducted via communication media with little face-to-face contact between students and teachers (Burke, 1989).

4. indirect leadership - leadership based in expertise rather than position (Wehmeyer, 1987).

5. technochange - changes that occur from the introduction of new technologies.

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

The review of the literature was divided into six historical stages. The first stage of the review began with school library issues before the turn of the twentieth century, and the second stage addressed issues in the early 1900s to the 1950s. School libraries/media centers and school librarians/media specialists did not gain major recognition until the mid-fifties with the emergence of the information society. The remaining four stages each represent a decade in the history of school library media centers and the library media profession.

Before the 1900s

The beginning of the school library movement in the United States started in 1835. Under Governor DeWitt Clinton of New York, the state legislature passed a law allowing school districts to use tax monies to establish school district libraries. Only a few school districts in the state used these monies for this purpose (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). In 1839, a second act was passed in New York to encourage the development of libraries; a sum of $55,000 was set

aside annually to be given on a matching fund basis to school districts (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Meder, 1990). During the 1841-42 school year, more than 200,000 books were added to the collections. Other states followed New York's leadership and passed similar legislation (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). Twenty-one states by 1876 had passed laws providing funds for school district libraries (Meder, 1990).

The movement to establish school district libraries was not successful. The book collections did not reflect children's needs, and the facilities for housing the collections were not adequate. The collections became scattered; the books often became a part of a teacher's personal library. The decline of the movement was evidenced by the New York State district libraries because there were twice as many books in the collections in 1853 as compared to 1890 (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

During the same time in history, public libraries were growing, and funds from school district libraries were being diverted to support and establish public libraries. The early school district libraries historically set two precedents: (1) a library facility in a school could have some educational value;

and (2) public funds could be used to support school libraries (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

The birth date of the modern American library movement is considered to be 1876 (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Meder, 1990). Led by Melvin Dewey and other librarians attending meetings on national library development during the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia, the American Library Association (ALA) was created. The first issue of Library Journal appeared that year, and a report that same year by ALA found that only 826 secondary school libraries and no elementary school libraries existed in the United States (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

Columbia College in New York established the first library education program in 1887 (Meder, 1990). In 1890, the Milwaukee Normal School set the pattern for library education in normal schools all over the country through the support and excellent resources of the Milwaukee Public Library. Only twenty-six percent of the students who entered normal school by the 1900s were required to have graduated from a high school (Meder, 1990).

In 1892, Andrew S. Draper, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Melvin Dewey, Secretary of the

Board of Regents and Director of the State Library, drafted a legislative bill that promoted the growth of school libraries in New York and served as a model for library legislation in other states. The new legislation provided monies up to five hundred dollars a year on a matching basis for individual school districts for the purchase of library books. Later the yardstick formula for money would be based on the per pupil population in the district. Only certain books from an approved list could be purchased. Attempts were made to secure these collections by occasionally allowing borrowing privileges to teachers and students. A classroom teacher was assigned to serve as a caretaker of the collection. New York also formed a School Libraries Division within the Department of Education in 1892 (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

In 1896, the National Education Association (NEA) created a library division. A petition requesting this new section was circulated by John Cotton Dana, president of ALA, and Melvin Dewey gave a persuasive speech on the necessity of libraries in schools at the NEA national convention in Buffalo (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). Melvin Dewey became the first chairman of the Library Department of NEA (Meder, 1990).

The time in history was characterized by the industrial growth in the North, the rise of a New South, and an expansion of the West. Americans were leaving the heartland to move to the cities as American industries grew. The transcontinental railroads opened national markets for products. The telephone created new communication opportunities.

Seventy five percent of the children left school before the age of twelve by the end of the nineteenth century. Lifelong learning was considered the responsibility of the individual, not the school (Meder, 1990).

The 1900s to the 1950s

Before the turn of the century until the mid-century, public libraries in many towns throughout the United States became the main supplier of books for children in the schools. Branch libraries were established in high schools and administered by the public library staff. Traveling collections to schools began. Under this system of outside control, the library never became an asset to the school curriculum. Much later, the most suitable pattern to emerge was an

independent school library under a board of education (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

The first librarians gathered together book collections, many from teachers' classrooms and placed them in a reading room for students. As a result, libraries became book depositories and librarians became the "keepers of the books."

The first graduate of a library school in the United States to serve as a school librarian was Mary Kingsbury. She was appointed in 1900 to the Erasamus Hall High School in New York City (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Woolls, 1988). Mary E. Hall was the second person appointed a school librarian to Girl's High School in Brooklyn in 1903 (Woolls, 1988).

The American Association of School Librarians (AASL) can trace its roots back to 1914 when the ALA Council approved a petition from the ALA Roundtable of Normal and High School Librarians to form a School Libraries Section. In 1915, Mary E. Hall became its first president (Pond, 1976).

According to Gillespie and Spirt (1983), national statistics between 1905 and 1915 revealed that only fifty trained librarians had been appointed by secondary schools. A foundation began for school

libraries and trained professionals in the early twentieth century, but most schools did not have libraries or those that did were inadequate in size, staff, and organization.

The few professional librarians that did exist had to struggle for equal status with teachers. New York City Board of Education acknowledged that librarians were essentially teachers rather than clerks by adopting regulations that made salaries of qualified high school librarians comparable to teachers' salaries and recommending that librarians should be graduates of a one-year course in an approved library school (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

After World War I, there was a rapid growth in public education. "In the thirty year span between 1900 and 1930, the elementary school population alone rose by fifty percent, and at the secondary level the growth was even more phenomenal" (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983, p. 6). A decline in child labor and strict enforcement of school attendance increased the number of students to be educated. The centralization of schools helped establish larger units that could afford a library and qualified librarian (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

John Dewey and his progressive education movement was influential in changing teaching methods and systems. Individualized instruction and a recognition of differences among children helped supplant rote memorization and the use of a single textbook. With this new movement, there was a need for many types of educational materials, which naturally led to a need for good school libraries and professional librarians (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

The inadequate condition of school libraries came to light when the National Council of Teachers of English conducted a nationwide survey on the teaching of English in 1915 (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). These results prompted the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the National Education Association (NEA), under the leadership of Charles C. Certain, to investigate the status of the post World War I secondary school libraries (Jones, 1982). The report, Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools, was published by ALA in 1920 (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Jones, 1982). The report gave quantitative standards and was adamant about the professional role of the librarian (Baird & Sakai, 1981; Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). The Certain

high school standards had a positive effect on the growth of school libraries. The 1920 standards established a framework for other state and regional accrediting agencies to follow. However, little attention was paid to educational services and library activities in the standards (Jones, 1982).

NEA and ALA endorsed another report by Certain, Elementary School Library Standards in 1925. These standards were quite detailed, including an extensive supply list and 212 basic books for an elementary collection. These standards did not have the impact of Certain's 1920 standards because elementary libraries did not exist and the need for them was unrecognized (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Woolls, 1988).

The years following the Certain standards, educators in the 1920s and 1930s realized that quantitative statements needed to be accompanied by qualitative statements. Educators began to look at library collections as sources of reading materials to awaken the interest of students and to entice the poor reader. Consequently, they saw a need for an expression of library support using functional terminology (Jones, 1982).

In the 1930s according to Woolls (1988), elementary principals or teachers could not imagine the possibility of a library in an elementary school. Classroom collections were the norm. Many secondary school libraries were housed at the back of study halls. "The proportion of seating to materials was probably 90 percent seating and 10 percent materials" (p. 127). Most materials were limited to leisure reading. The major teaching method was lecture by an all-knowing instructor, and tests of competency were based on the textbook in use. Typically, the school librarian taught English when she was not the study hall monitor. The school librarian interacted with eleventh grade students when they were in the process of writing term papers.

The U. S. Office of Education by 1940 revealed that every state had methods for certifying school librarians. These state certification requirements varied drastically from two years of college and eight hours of library science to a bachelor's degree (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). Even though state requirements existed, many school districts ignored them by not having qualified school librarians. Generally, the school library was still administered on

a part-time basis by a classroom teacher given released time or volunteers.

An ALA Committee on Post-War Planning issued national standards, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, in 1945 that reflected the optimism of a country that emerged from World War II (Jones, 1982). The 1945 standards promoted services to students and teachers and gave quantitative measurements for staffing, collections, expenditures, and space (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Jones, 1982). The 1945 standards were not explicit on the housing of nonbook materials in the school library collection (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

The United States had been victorious in two world wars and had discarded its policy of isolation by joining with other countries to protect its democratic principles. Our country survived two major wars, the decadent 20s, a depression, and the Cold War and emerged as a world leader and power.

The 1950s

Following World War II, school libraries experienced a phenomenal growth and development. The educational climate encouraged change. Veterans were

taking advantage of available educational benefits, and nonveterans were also enrolling in colleges and universities in large numbers. The college graduates of the 1950s through the 1960s valued their education and their prestigious positions in the workforce. They held higher dreams for their sons and daughters. They believed that education was the key for a successful life (Bard & Sakai, 1981).

Craver (1986) felt that the period between the close of World War II and the mid-fifties was a time of American complacency. Americans were feeling their super power status after emerging a winner from a world war and were floundering in a wave of anti-intellectualism. Citizens argued against the need to increase taxes and construct schools.

In 1951, the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) became a separate division of ALA (Pond, 1976). By 1953 and 1954, only thirty-seven percent of the secondary schools in the United States reported receiving services of a centralized library (Craver, 1986). Teaching methods during this period were still dominated by the textbook.

Naisbitt (1982) stated that "the information society had its beginnings in 1956 and 1957, two years

in the decade that embodied American industrial power" (p. 11). Outwardly, the United States appeared to be a thriving industrial economy, but for the first time in 1956, white-collar workers outnumbered blue-collar workers. Most worked with information rather than producing goods.

> The following year, 1957, marked the beginning of the globalization of the information revolution: The Russians launched Sputnik, the missing technological catalyst in a growing information society. The real importance of Sputnik was not that it began the space age, but that it introduced the era of global satellite communication (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 12).

The launching of Sputnik halted American complacency and expedited educational reform in the public schools (Craver, 1986). Sputnik caused members of Congress to fund workshops, special programs, and training and retraining teachers. Funds were pumped into local school systems for the purchase of materials and equipment to supplement classroom textbooks especially in math, science, and foreign language. The National Defense Act of 1958 reimbursed school

districts fifty-one cents on each dollar spent (Woolls, 1988). Rarely were these materials housed in the school library because high school libraries were inadequate in size and staff to accommodate these additions and elementary school libraries were rare. However, the purchase of instructional materials did contribute to the concept of existing school libraries becoming resource centers, not just depositories for books.

The fifties were a time of change and stagnation. A dichotomy existed in education as the school library media profession emerged. Librarians were perceived by some to serve primarily as providers of materials, reader advisors, and study hall supervisors. Others perceived librarians as being less passive by initiating library instruction in class work (Craver, 1986).

> With the introduction of audiovisual materials into the curriculum, the adoption of less traditional subjects, and the abolishment of the study hall, the road was being paved for the concept of the school library as an instructional media center and for a changing role for the school librarian (Craver, 1986, p. 185).

As early as 1956, AASL acknowledged and promoted this changing role. By the late 1950s, the basic philosophy of education began to focus on learning, which permitted a broader instructional role for the school librarian (Craver, 1986).

Statistics for 1958-59 from the U. S. Office of Education reported that about one-half of the nation's schools did not have libraries and over one-half did not have the services of a qualified librarian. Schools that did not have libraries had less than five books per child. Only about one-third of the elementary schools had libraries (Bard & Sakai, 1981; Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

Television was a common medium for information and entertainment in most American living rooms by the end of the fifties. Transatlantic phone connections were possible by 1956. Satellite communications would open new frontiers and expand the possibilities of world-wide interaction.

The 1960s

Craver (1986) described education and school library development in the sixties as a decade of ferment. The curriculum became responsive to the

growing needs for different types of educational methodologies. Students aspired to greater educational achievement. "Learning was no longer viewed as a transitory state, but was seen as a continuing and lifelong process" (p. 185). New curricular and instructional changes occurred such as communication arts, vocational education, fine arts, and the humanities. School district mergers resulted in efficiency and versatility. Innovation of instructional organization included independent study, advanced placement, team teaching, the track system or ability grouping, and expanded block teaching periods. Jones (1982) stated that there was a national mindset following the Sputnik launch that led to a revived determination for all American children to have the opportunity to acquire basic learning skills.

Several events in the early 1960s helped the expansion of school libraries and the initiation of the concept of elementary school libraries in the United States (Woolls, 1988). In 1960, AASL with the cooperation of nineteen other associations published Standards for School Library Programs. The 1960 standards made an impact on state and local standards by stressing the responsibility of school boards,

administrators, and other supervisory personnel for developing successful library programs (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

The 1960 standards still did not give a clear recommendation on combining the book and audiovisual collections (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). Jones (1982) praised the 1960 standards because they were regarded as the best written and most accepted standards. These standards were research based, accompanied by an extensive campaign for implementation, and achievable by schools.

Following the publication of the 1960 standards, the School Library Development Project was sponsored by ALA and financed by a $100,000 grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc. The purpose of the project was to encourage each state to adopt up-to-date standards based on the 1960 standards. Lay leaders, educators, and librarians developed a team approach to raising state library standards. An invitation to all states was extended for submitting proposals to implement the 1960 standards. Twenty-one grants were made to assist state projects (Saunders & Polette, 1975).

C. E. Stouch, the president of the Knapp Foundation, was influenced by an article entitled "Is Your Child a Victim of the Book Gap?" that appeared in This Week magazine as part of a publicity promotion for National Library Week in 1961 (Bard & Sakai, 1981). The Knapp Foundation awarded AASL a grant of $1,130,000 in December, 1962, for a five-year demonstration project of exemplary school libraries. Pilot programs began in five elementary and three secondary schools at locations throughout the United States. Cooperation with a teacher education program was a requirement. Library science degree students were placed in the pilot schools to complete their practicum experience. When the library centers were in full operation, administrators were invited to apply for grants to visit the model libraries (Woolls, 1988). More than sixteen thousand educators witnessed the libraries in action and visited classrooms using library materials in the instructional program (Bard & Sakai, 1981). A motion picture, And Something More, was produced to show to parents and community members to elicit support for elementary school library programs (Woolls, 1988).

In November 1967, the Knapp Foundation granted ALA $1,163,718 for a second five-year project to study library personnel. The first phase, the School Library Manpower Project, selected 694 public and private elementary and secondary schools according to a specified criteria of high quality programs and personnel. The results were a task analysis survey that gave job descriptions for school library personnel (Bard & Sakai, 1981). The Manpower Project identified about seven hundred tasks to be performed by the school librarian (Craver, 1986). The second phase of the project involved recruitment and education of school librarians. Six institutions of higher learning were chosen to provide experimental programs in library education (Bard and Sakai, 1981). The Knapp Foundation projects gave a tremendous boost to the growth of library programs and services.

The 1964 Civil Rights Act and President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty established programs to attack causes of illiteracy, unemployment, and racial discrimination. These two events in the sixties were a catalyst for federal spending. Federal funds became available to schools and libraries with the passage of the Library Services and Construction Act in 1964 and

the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965 (Craver, 1986). The main philosophy of the ESEA legislation was to equalize educational opportunities for children despite cultural, racial, or economic differences (Bard & Sakai, 1981). Through Title II of ESEA, millions of dollars were funneled into developing school libraries and collections (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983). Few professionals were available to choose and organize materials for use in elementary schools (Woolls, 1988). In 1968, Title II-B of the Higher Education Act of 1965 provided funds for the training of professionals in library science (Bard & Sakai, 1981).

Craver (1986) stressed that the new emphasis on diversified learning materials, print and nonprint, for a variety of subjects and levels of ability brought the instructional role of the school librarian that was introduced in the 1950s to the forefront. Many articles in the literature promoted this instructional literature, there was still a debate raging over classroom libraries versus central libraries. Librarians had great difficulty working cooperatively with teachers in developing units when they had their own classroom collections. The school librarian of the

mid-sixties was primarily seen as a sophisticated supplier of print and nonprint materials and a promoter of books rather than an active team member in the educational process.

In 1965, the Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI) of NEA developed audiovisual standards that described the role of the media professional in schools as a vital participant in the educational program (Craver, 1986; Jones, 1982). The media professional was encouraged to prepare teaching materials, provide inservice programs on the selection and use of instructional materials and techniques, and assist in the evaluation of the usage of instructional materials and methods for teaching (Craver, 1986).

Craver (1986) noted that research conducted in the sixties gave a realistic view of changes occurring in libraries and the role of the librarian. The integration of the library program into the over-all teaching program appeared to be greater in schools where the library served as the resource center for providing materials. Librarians taking on participatory roles in the instructional program were accepted by administrators, faculty, and students.

In 1969, the first joint standards were produced by AASL and DAVI. Standards for School Media Programs merged traditional library and audiovisual services (Gillespie and Spirt, 1983; Jones, 1982). The unified media program fused facilities, services, and personnel together to meet challenges of new teaching strategies and styles (Gillespie & Spirt, 1982). The 1969 standards renamed the person in charge of the school library. "The library media specialist now maintained a media center" (Woolls, 1988, p. 128). The 1969 standards met with a lot of opposition primarily because of terminology, but the financial practicality of a unified media concept was readily welcomed (Jones, 1982).

The 1970s

Craver (1986) stated that the seventies were a time of action. A watchword for the curriculum changes was the term "relevancy." This period of time made actual changes, rather than proposed changes. Approximately one-fourth of the school districts established some type of alternative school. Teachers and students actively participated together in projects to engage learners in educational discoveries. The

schools were being regarded as change agents in society. The school once viewed as a self-contained and autonomous structure in the community began to be seen as an extension of the community. "The democratization of education emerged as part of the search for greater equality and social justice and was apparent in the priority given to education by minority groups and students residing in rural areas" (p. 187).

Within this decade of change, the school library media specialist received assurance that role proposals, which were ahead of their times in the late fifties and sixties, were now appropriate.

> In the seventies, the media specialist was an integral part of the teaching and learning functions and used a variety of strategies to teach students to locate and evaluate sources. They assisted in the design of instructional strategies and offered in-service programs to help teachers produce and use materials (Craver, 1986, p. 188).

With little research guidance in the literature, school library media specialists on their own initiative began incorporating audiovisual materials

into learning areas. They found methods of getting teachers and students out of the classroom and into the media center. They extended their services to the total school curriculum rather than to the request of a few teachers (Craver, 1986).

In the late sixties, DAVI became a National Affiliate of the NEA, which required that only the officers had to belong to NEA. DAVI decided on a name change in 1970. The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) came into existence from a history that began back in the 1920s (Billings, 1983).

ESEA made an impressive difference in the number of school library media centers in our country. From the time period, 1964 to 1974, fifty percent more public school children were provided with library media services, in other words, 14.6 million more children had centralized library collections and services (Bard & Sakai, 1981).

Congress passed Public Law 93-380 in 1974. This law consolidated Titles II and III of ESEA and Title II of NDEA into Title IV-B, the Library and Learning Resources Program. Title IV-B was designed to provide

more flexibility in the use of funds and extend the program through 1978 (Bard & Sakai, 1981).

Media Programs: District and School was published jointly by AASL and AECT in 1975. This publication continued to support the unified approach to centralizing media services in schools. The new standards elevated the role of the school library media specialist by placing an emphasis on involvement in the school's instructional program rather than a passive support role of only providing services. The 1975 standards gave managerial practices that could help achieve the integration of the goals of the media program into the over-all goals of the school. Quantitative measures were given for collections and facilities. A recommendation was made that ten percent of the national average per pupil operating cost be spent by school boards for each student enrolled for the development of media collections within the school district. Networking with other agencies for support and services was stressed (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983; Jones, 1982). The 1975 standards replaced the terms, "student" and "teacher" with "user" to broaden the access to persons in the community (Jones, 1982).

In the late seventies, November 15-19, 1979, the first White House Conference on Library and Information Science focused attention on the future of libraries. Sixty-four recommendations that ranged from a passage of a national library act to the guarantee of adequate media services in the public schools were developed by the 826 delegates. The final report, Information for the 80s, covers the conference and recommendations (Gillespie & Spirt, 1983).

While school programs were going through tremendous changes, other events were brewing in the seventies that would cause a disruption of American ideals in the next decade. Antiwar demonstrations, the prevalence of drugs, an economic recession, and energy shortages precipitated the future criticisms of government and education.

The 1980s

During the latter half of the seventies, Americans became disillusioned with the government. The controversy of the Vietnam Conflict, the Watergate cover-up, and escalating urban problems were factors in this loss of confidence. Craver (1986) stated that our society thought that education for the mass

population would solve a multitude of socioeconomic problems. By the beginning of the eighties, education was not being proclaimed as a cure-all for instilling democratic ideas and solving society's problems. In fact, the public had lost faith in the schools. "The educating functions that were traditionally performed by the home, school, and church changed" (p. 189).

The number of children affected by divorce doubled from 1960. Non-traditional families and varied family roles became the norm rather than the exception. By the early eighties, declining enrollment, fallout from the women's movement and the invention of the pill, became a fiscal reality. Tax revolts reflected people's attitude toward education. As educators tried to respond to the socioeconomic changes, major technological advances compounded the issues (Craver, 1986).

The Chapter II fund was created by the Education Consolidated and Improvement Act (ECIA) in 1981. ECIA combined twenty-eight small and medium-sized categorical programs into a single block grant. School districts target these monies for library, basic skill, gifted, arts and desegregation programs (Pattie & Ernst, 1983).

Liesener (1985) explained that there has been a decline in staff and collection budgets as well as buying power due to decreasing enrollments, inflation, and Proposition 13-like tax limitations. Woolls (1988) stated that the school library media picture looks bleak. Monies being spent on microcomputers and other technologies have decreased available funds for other types of materials and equipment. The budget crunch meant the loss of ground in expanding services to meet the needs of learners (Liesener, 1985).

With the publication of A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform in April, 1983, by the U. S. Department of Education, the bashing of public education reached an all-time high (Patrick, 1988). The report cited the decline in test scores and science achievement and that our future looked bleak as a resourceful nation when other countries were challenging our status as a world power. The functional illiteracy rate was approaching forty percent. The report did not speak directly to school library media centers, but it did ask schools to institute more required courses in English, mathematics, science, social studies, and computer science (Craver, 1986). Most state legislatures with

very little or no input from educators mandated new academic standards, but they did not back their reforms with increased educational funding (Patrick, 1988).

The ALA Task Force on Excellence in Education (1984) responded to statements made in A Nation at Risk by concentrating on four realities of a "Learning Society" involved in lifelong learning. One of the realities presented was the need for good school libraries as being an essential component in a good school. The lack of full-time professional library media specialists in elementary schools was cited as a need in an information-based society. This report stated that in 1982 our country had only one school library media specialist for every 954 students, which averaged out to twenty seconds a day per student.

Loertscher (1982) noted that the first revolution in the library media profession came after World War II when headway was made in the educational process as libraries became deposit centers for all types of media materials. Loertscher (1982) took Bloom's concept of a taxonomy and plugged in his ideas for a second revolution in the profession. Tne second revolution is entwined with a taxonomy of levels in which the library media specialist can be engaged.

These eleven steps of involvement with the school community are in a hierarchal order that highlight exemplary role expectations of professional library media specialists.

The teaching role of the library media specialist has been affected as the new technologies were being incorporated into the media center's services. Not only were library medial specialists asked to learn how to use the computer, but they were asked to teach students and teachers how to use computers and recommend appropriate software programs. Attention has been drawn to the library media center and library media specialist as management functions and the card catalog have become automated (Woolls, 1988).

AASL and AECT jointly published new standards, Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs, in 1988. The roles of the school library media specialist are delineated as: (1) information specialist; (2) teacher; and (3) instructional consultant. These roles naturally overlap (Walker, 1988). The philosophy emphasized in Information Power, is that library media activities and services are the results of actions by people. School library media specialists are an essential link in the information

connection. Throughout the new guidelines, the ability to prepare and plan for and to manage change is a recurring theme (Patrick, 1988). This document helps the school library media specialist begin preparation for the professional challenges of the twenty-first century (Whitney, 1988).

CHAPTER THREE

TRENDS AND FUTURE VISIONS

The future will bring many possibilities for accelerated change in our society.

> The ability to cope with rapid change will be essential for success. Life in the next century will be characterized by the demands of adjusting to new circumstances, learning new skills, competing in a changing job market, and keeping abreast of technological developments that, in turn, create more change. The Information Age, an age in which the abilities to access and use information effectively is requisite, is upon us (Whitney, 1988, p. 7).

Chapter Three presents varied theories and visions on school library media programs and the roles of school library media specialists in the nineties and the twenty-first century. The review considers technological, social and educational trends that seem to be influencing school library media programs and how these trends may alter the future of the school library media profession.

Technological Trends

The effects of technology are being felt by a society thrust into rapid changes.

> Changes have been mainly brought about by the introduction of information technologies and their expansion in all facets of society. There has never been a time in our history when so much history has been available to the general public, and never before have our lives depended so much on our ability to use information successfully (Brown, 1990, pp. 20-21).

Pogrow (1981) states that our world is entrenched in a technological revolution unsurpassed since the inception of the industrial revolution over two hundred fifty years ago. Technological change is so comprehensive that it is redefining the nature of work. Technology is eliminating routine work and is reducing the amount of energy needed to produce goods. Economists and social scientists picture a world with less work. Robotic technology will eventually replace the blue collar labor force (Craver, 1984). "Telecommunications and computers will continue to

drive change, just as manufacturing did during the industrial period" (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990, p. 23).

> Technology opportunism implies that nations which are most aware of IT (information technology), most forward looking, most accepting of change, most responsive to new demands, will prove the most competitive in world markets (Irving, 1988, p. 13).

In December, 1988, the first fiber-optic telephone cable across the Atlantic went into service. The new cable can carry 40,000 calls simultaneously, tripling the volume of previous interactions. Japan and the United States were linked in 1989. Europe, North America, Asia and Australia should be totally connected by the end of 1992. This form of telecommunications expands the information flow between countries and shrinks our worldly community (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990).

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) declare that technology has empowered the individual since information is not just in the hands of a few. There are fewer dictators in the world because information cannot be totally controlled. Governments can easily

be watched via computer networks and global broadcasting.

The types of information technologies which are now entering the school library media center have filtered down from industry, business, research centers, and universities. The school library media specialist is at the forefront of coordinating the use of technology in the schools (Craver, 1984).

Prior to 1980, few students or educators had direct contact with computers. The Apple IIe and IBM PC were just being introduced in the schools (Eisenberg, 1990). Mastering the microcomputer is now seen as a basic survival skill, whereas ten years ago, it was not (Baker, 1984). The introduction of technologies into the schools in the past decade has created a trend in which technological usage will only escalate in the future (Eisenberg, 1990).

According to Eisenberg (1987), school library media specialists should be instructing the school community in the use of computer-based information sources; however, there is a wide gap in computer-related involvement across America. Some school library media specialists have moved extensively into online search services; others have assumed full

computer coordination and teaching responsibilities. Still others are pleading for initial access to microcomputer technologies in their schools.

Craver (1984) states that the school library media specialist is faced with the introduction and expansion of technology that promotes enhanced media services. The online catalogs, reference databases, and management programs are revolutionizing the way to manipulate information for the school clientele and the school library personnel. Computerized networking is changing some functions of the media center's services by providing expanded information services that link users with outside sources of information. The potential for resources is only limited by the varied networks. With the home computer market growing at an unprecedented rate, it is only natural for school library databases to move into the home via telecommunications.

Since the purpose of the school library media program, according to Eisenberg (1990) is to meet the information needs of its users, school library media specialists must first consider technology from the perspective of what it can do for its users. Second, school library media specialists must capitalize on

technology to help fulfill the purpose of the library media program because technology can improve the effectiveness and efficiency of library media services. Third, school library media specialists must recognize and accept the fact that technology is not standing still and is going to increase change. Fourth, school library media specialists must engage in continuing education programs to gain knowledge and skills as the profession evolves.

As school library media centers put their catalogs online, it will increase networking capabilities. Networking is an organizational trend that will provide the widest use of resources at the lowest cost. Library networks encourage the growth and development of unique collections and discourage duplication of materials. Networks can foster and nurture the development of the best parts of a school's collection. Craver (1984) envisions a school library media specialist who will act as an interface specialist, organizing and managing the development of local databases for various units or information needs. Units, reference questions, curricular needs will be cooperatively shared. As Murray (1989) suggests, economically school library media specialists need to

be involved in consortia activities that foster the exchange of talent, resources, and ideas.

With the establishment of databases, networks, and interactive television, Craver (1984) states that the methods and means of storing, retrieving and transmitting information is drastically changing and that school library media specialists will need to develop policies and procedures for managing this information. The school library media specialist will have to select the most efficient means for disseminating information. This will require an awareness of the client's educational abilities and computer literacy.

Byrne (1981) points out that school library media specialists will have to deal with information pollution with the new abundance of information and the likelihood of inaccurate data becoming a part of a permanent file in a database system. Maintaining the school databases will become a part of the school library media specialist's job description plus helping users get reliable information. Byrne (1981) feels that the major contribution that the school library media specialists can make as new technologies emerge

will be in the area of professional expertise and effective interpersonal skills.

Pogrow (1981) states that the integration of the television with the telephone, computer, and video disc represents as fundamental an innovation as the development of the printing press. Lancaster (1987) mentions that the printed book has lasted five hundred years, which is a mere speck in the history of human communication. The past decade has produced an avalanche of electronic information. Electronic databases have been created which have no print equivalents. Electronic publications and their networks offer enhanced capabilities in locating and manipulating information. Toffler (1990) discusses Value Added Networks (VANs) that do not just transfer data online, but can analyze, combine, repackage, or otherwise alter messages. Software embedded in the network can change the original information to meet the end user's needs.

Lancaster (1987) predicts that libraries as an institution housing physical collections will eventually become obsolete; however, information places will be more important in our society in the near future than they have been in the past. Craver (1984)

states that there is a possibility of extinction of school librarianship when viewed in the light of robots, home-based technologies, cable two-way television, and networking. Woolls (1988) envisions a media center of the future where twenty-five percent of the space will be utilized for seating, twenty-five percent for storage of concrete media formats, twenty-five percent for production of learning, and twenty-five percent for fluid information transfer.

Baker (1984) points out that historically the exemplary media program remains a highly personal art despite the use of technology. Information sought may be in a book or an online search, but the responsibility to find quality information and help the person use it properly has remained unchanged throughout the history of the school library media profession.

Social Trends

Craver (1984) points out that projected technological, economic, and educational trends will have an impact on the behavioral functions of a society and that these changes will affect the social structure of the school library media center. The trends will be

a contributing factor for changes in work habits, reading habits, and information needs of our society.

Irving (1989) states that economics determine the application of information technology, but people's social values and attitudes determine which instructional technology options will be adopted. The role of school library media specialists as providers of information resources will be determined in the future by the values and attitudes held by opinion leaders.

Squire (1987) discusses areas in which computerization of information may affect social interaction in our culture: (1) an aggravation of the generation gap as the younger members of our society accept and embrace new technologies; (2) changes in competencies necessary to function effectively in future environments; (3) an exaggeration of social inequalities between those who have access to the new technologies and those who do not.

Behavioral change that will affect school library media centers is the means by which students access information and acquire knowledge. The accumulation of knowledge has always assumed the ability to read, write, and compute; however, with the advent of technological advancements, knowledge may be gained

without proficiency in these disciplines. As Craver (1984) states, reading is not now, and never has been the way most people get information that counts to them. The printed word may no longer be thought of as the ultimate method of communication. As Pogrow (1981) points out, twice as many Americans find television a source of daily satisfaction as compared to books. A decline in reading might be a logical predictor with the growth of cablevision and voice-activated computers. Squire (1987), on the other hand, predicts that electronic mail, networking, and other forms of instantaneous transmission of ideas and facts will require more prose to be read and written. The ability to receive and respond to transmissions will be highly valued and in great demand in our society.

As behavioral changes occur, school library media specialists will need to be active in meeting the resource needs of their school community. The school library media specialist must be able to assess the abilities of their student population to discover the most appropriate means of helping them acquire information needs (Craver, 1984).

The school library media profession is dealing with stress as a fallout from the quickly emerging

information technologies. Virtually all operations in information management have undergone dramatic change due to technological innovations. Champion (1988) points out that how we manage change in technology, "technochange", and what kind of leadership we provide in this area will have a profound impact on the future of the profession.

Educational Trends

Toffler (1990) predicts that mass education, like the smokestack industries, will become obsolete in the next century; a new educational structure will merge with the advancements and capabilities of new media systems. As Miller (1983) points out, information, work assignments, and various social interactions can be brought to people in their own setting as opposed to forcing them to work or study in a central location.

Illich (1971) states that compulsory education is not meeting the needs of society and the individual. "Most people acquire most of their knowledge outside school. Most learning happens casually, and even most intentional learning is not the result of programmed instruction" (p. 12). He foresees a deschooled society tnat has learning webs embedded throughout the greater

community that would allow individuals to follow their own educational pathways without being restricted by a demeaning mass educational system. Lifelong education would be self-motivated learning rather than compelled learning.

Barnes (1984) and Glines (1989) envision new learning systems in our information age society that would tailor educational opportunities to individual learning needs. Learning would take place in the home, workplace, and at varied community centers that promote learning encounters for effective living. Learners would create their own social and educational networks based on their learning needs. "Everyone in the community is to be a teacher, everyone is to be a learner" (Glines, 1989, p. 51). Educational choice becomes the key to lifelong learning for an individual.

The Minnesota Experimental City (MXC) is a proposed futuristic city for 250,000 people on 60,000 virgin acres in northern Minnesota. The latest technological innovations will be incorporated into this community ... no cars, waterless toilets, an area of climate control, and people mover transportation. This community will be a learning laboratory where centralized schools will not exist. New learning

systems will be initiated by the MXC plan. People will share skills and knowledge with others. All citizens will be involved in a continual learning process of their choice. Centers that promote the new learning systems will be developed to facilitate individualized learning and realization of personal pursuits (Barnes, 1984; Glines, 1989).

According to Matthews, Flum, and Whitney (1990), our society needs citizens who are literate so they can be imaginative, productive, and involved in self-government and take command of their own lives and contribute to the lives of others. The future of our country depends on developing the learning potentials of all children regardless of race, ethnic background, or geographic location by providing access to information and lifelong learning experiences, especially the inclusion of research and retrieval skills.

At the brink of a new century, twenty to twenty-five percent of the children in the United States live in poverty. These children experience some combination of inadequate housing, lack of family support, poor health care, and inattention to personal and social development. This level of social and physical trauma is not approached by any other major industrialized

nation (Matthews, Flum & Whitney, 1990; Howe, 1991). One out of four students in the United States is dropping out of school without a diploma (Matthews, Flum & Whitney, 1990). There are many societal reflections in the nation's schools.

> America has historically expected a great deal of its educational institutions. Every new societal problem becomes a new challenge to at least be partially solved by some addition to the educational mission. In spite of these great and ever growing expectations, the level of resource allocations and the priority and status given to education in this society does not by any means parallel the expectations (Liesener, 1985, p. 11).

America 2000 is the first serious policy initiative in the nation's history to address the issue of better education for its citizenry. The education reform plan was unveiled by President George Bush and Secretary of Education, Lamar Alexander in April, 1991. With the exception of civil rights, which expanded the boundaries of education, the federal government's role has been modest in the support of elementary and secondary education. The federal government's monetary

contribution has been about eight percent of educational expenditures (Doyle, 1991).

The underlying concepts of America 2000 include school readiness, a higher graduation rate, national testing, exemplary standards in math and science achievement, adult literacy, and safe school environments (America 2000, 1991). A nonprofit foundation, organized at the request of the President, the New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) is committed to raising between 150 to 200 million dollars to supply research development services to the new American schools. A legislative program, 535+, was proposed that would ask congress to authorize and appropriate one million dollars per congressional district as well as the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Trust Territories for the creation of new American schools. The schools will be located in communities committed to the national goals of education in America 2000 (Doyle, 1991). These schools will be showplaces that reflect the best teaching methodologies, learning strategies, and educational technologies (Sewall, 1991). Some educational experts feel that America 2000 is just a pipe dream that will

not have a major effect on national educational reforms (Howe, 1991).

Another event and possible legislation that may affect education and school library media programs was the second White House Conference on Library and Information Services held in Washington, D.C. on July 9-13, 1991. The delegates recommended the passage of the Children and Youth Literacy Through Libraries Act, which includes five components that seek federal support of public and school libraries. The school library services title section included:
(1) establishment of an office within the U. S. Department of Education responsible for providing leadership to school library media programs;
(2) creation of federal legislation to provide demonstration grants to schools for teachers and library media specialists to design resource-based instructional activities; (3) establishment of grants to provide information technology to school library media centers; (4) the requirement of categorical aid for school library media services and resources in any federal legislation which provides funds for educational purposes; and (5) establishment of federal incentive programs to ensure professional staffing in school

library media centers across the nation (Matthews, 1991).

Miller (1983) stresses that the challenge in education is to break the teaching habits of the past. The educational community is in the process of dealing with communication technologies to produce learning experiences that will prepare students to live effectively in the twenty-first century. To accomplish this goal, computer literacy will be a primary focus in education during the remainder of the twentieth century.

Brown (1990) states that changes in education will not occur in a vacuum. A few educators are attempting to create learning experiences which will meet learners' needs as well as fulfill curriculum objectives. This philosophical approach is called resource-based learning. This approach may be intellectually accepted, but it is far from the implementation stage in most schools.

School library media specialists can play an important role as change agents by supporting and being involved in new educational approaches. Educational change is a process that involves people and time; it is not an event. Cooperative educational planning is a

complex process, which requires educators working together to learn how to create and implement new strategies and resources that will allow students to have more control over their learning process (Brown, 1990).

As Craver (1984) points out, the mode of learning is gradually changing. Students are less dependent upon books as their only source for the acquisition of knowledge. Students' method of learning is changing from passive to active. Active learning necessitates the availability of varied, accurate, and current information. Eisenberg (1990) states that the modern school library media specialist through increasing use of technology encourages colleagues to move away from a single source textbook-based education with an overall emphasis on lifelong learning.

Irving (1989) states that teaching information skills has become an accepted component of the basic curriculum in the past ten years. Pogrow (1981) stresses the importance of educating the school community on information retrieval skills and logical operators. However, Irving (1989) points out that as an increasing emphasis is placed on teaching information skills to young students, our professional

expertise in accessing information resources may become part of everyone's repertoire of skills.

Eisenberg (1987) states that "from early on, the role of the school librarian has been seen as encompassing three major areas: (1) collection management; (2) reading guidance and the promotion of literature; and (3) reference and information service" (p. 2). These traditional roles have produced a steady increase in the level of involvement.

> A definable role, based on traditional functions but responsive to a changing world is emerging. The role includes: (1) collection management based on a unified media concept; (2) promotion of literacy and guidance in the use of media; (3) teaching information skills for an information society (through integration with classroom curriculum); (4) acting as a catalyst or change agent in the schools through awareness of "cutting edge" technology and consultation on curriculum and instructional design; and (5) assuming information management responsibilities beyond the walls of the centralized media facility (Eisenberg, 1987, p. 4).

Woolls (1988) states that the roles of the school library media specialist in the immediate future become interwoven with other teachers as they learn to adjust to a world full of information and different ways to access this information. Craver (1984) states that school library media specialists must take leadership roles and become active participants with the teaching faculty of their schools. School library media specialists must plan and present inservices for teachers and students in these emerging information based technologies if they are to be accepted, learned and used.

Miller and Spanjer (1988) state that the usage of library media resources and technology usually requires changes in teachers' behavior. The school library media specialist can assume the role of peer coaching by offering inservice activities. Set plans must be adopted for making changes in teaching strategies. By choosing to work directly with teachers, school library media specialists can better utilize the resources and services of the library media center to influence student learning. "School library media specialists who accept the role of change makers must carefully rethink their priorities and establish modes of

inservice education that promote effective utilization of resources" (Miller & Spanjer, 1988, p. 308).

Wehmeyer (1987) stresses that the school library media specialist will find the role of consigliere, advisor or counselor, a potent means of strengthening the media center program. In a change facilitator role, the library media specialist is an indirect leader interacting as a colleague with other faculty members. The school library media specialist communicates by asking, informing, modeling, suggesting, and supporting.

> The library media specialist supports staff,not only with materials and services, but also with collegial understanding as they struggle with new ideas and perfect new skills. By giving a helping hand at critical moments, the library media specialist lays a foundation for other shared undertakings (Wehmeyer, 1987, p. 202).

Liesener (1985) and Irving (1989) state that the primary function performed by the school library media specialist of the future can be viewed as a mediation function. School library media specialists will play the role of an intermediary between the complex and

rapidly expanding information world and the school community.

Presently in our classrooms, distance education allows experts and teachers at sites remote to the school to offer varied learning experiences to students. Distance education will continue to expand in possibilities as usage and technologies are increased. School library media specialists can help coordinate on and off site information sources for this growing program (Burke, 1989; Hale, 1992).

Stripling (1989) states that school library media professionals are the information specialists in a society wallowing in a proliferation of information. Today's and tomorrow's students will need more sophisticated information skills when they enter the workforce. Baker (1984) and Eisenberg (1987) contend that while the medium may be the message, helping students to interpret and comprehend that message so they can understand and act intelligently upon the information they have received remains an important teaching responsibility of the school library media specialist.

According to Stripling (1989), the school library media specialist must help prepare students for a

future that no one can foresee in terms of available technology and information. The school library media program must evolve as methods and curriculum change; media services must be proactive, not reactive.

The school library media specialist has evolved from a study hall monitor to a growing expert in educational design. Eisenberg (1987) points out that the instructional role of the school library media specialist will require more training and background in teaching, methodology, and curriculum. School library media specialists will become more involved in the area of instructional design. This role entails knowledge of teaching-learning strategies and instructional media that best meet the learner's educational objectives. This knowledge requires familiarity and competence in a wide range of information technologies and resources. Brown (1990) states that the school library media specialists must keep abreast in an information rich society by becoming lifelong learners seeking new answers and solutions to educational problems.

Craver (1984) and Holcomb (1989) stress the importance of updated skills and educational programs for the school library media profession in order to assure quality services in our schools for the twenty-

first century. The profession is part of an ever-changing society that is enmeshed in new technologies and their utilization to create a better educated citizen.

Hale (1992) states that there has been a metamorphosis in the school library media program from the turn of the twentieth century to the present. During the same time period, society has moved from the industrial age through the electronic age and into the information age. The basic structure of our schools has remained unchanged since the age of the Industrial Revolution with one notable exception, the school library media center. The school library media center reflects changes in our society better than any other single program in our schools. "Our challenge is to continue to be on the cutting edge of change while providing the necessary support to programs along the continuum from the industrial to information age" (p. 23).

Craver (1984) states that the information age will reward people who are adaptive to change, who are flexible, and who have skills in different disciplines and the ability to transfer ideas from one to another.

These special qualities will be required of school library media specialists of the future.

As the school library media profession enters the early stages of the twenty-first century, roles will be similar to the past, but the method and means that will be utilized to perform the future roles will be significantly altered. The changes in society, technology, economics and education have created major adjustments that will not permit ignorance or lack of flexibility in our profession (Craver, 1984).

As Ely (1982) points out, an adaptive school library media specialist can react to new challenges and knows when and how to initiate change. "The ability to cope with change while creating the future which will be personally satisfying and professionally rewarding seems to be the key to defining the role" (p. 36).

Stripling (1989) and Irving (1989) state that the school library media profession cannot wait until society and educational practices force them to change; they must create their own wave and orchestrate a future for themselves. With over 90,000 public and private school library media programs, representing three-fourths of all libraries in the United States,

school library media specialists must stand up and demand better school library programs in our country to help prepare our youth for the next century (Stripling, 1989).

CHAPTER FOUR

INFERENCES

The school library media profession has evolved from the turn of the twentieth century. Influences in society and education from the late 1950s to the present have created an accelerated need for the profession in the school community. The Knapp Foundation established the importance of school library media programs and professionals in the elementary schools. This research study has taken an in-depth look at the past and a glimpse into the future. The school library media profession is still in the process of acceptance and emergence on an uncharted course into the twenty-first century.

The study implies that the school library media profession will have to be responsive to changes in our society brought on by information age technologies and reforms. The profession will have to be reactive to these rapidly changing technologies and know how to best utilize their potential to promote better media services for their users. The profession will be the intermediary between the source and the patron. This will require proactive professionals who are knowledgeable and skilled in different disciplines and

are able to transfer their expertise. Effective interpersonal skills will be the key to facilitating changes in library media center services.

With the expansion of telecommunication technologies, this study indicates that the school library media profession should be at the forefront in encouraging open access to information through the formation of networks, consortia, and distance education programs. These formations will broaden the parameters of school library media services by creating new links to information resources. School library media specialists will no longer exist in isolation in self-contained programs. School library media professionals will join other professionals in establishing media services without walls where access to information and learning experiences will be limited only by the lack of funds, imagination, and technological innovation.

The study implies that as changes occur in education, school library media professionals should be full-fledged participants in the school community and pacesetters in integrating school library media services with user needs. The profession must help learners become active partners in their own learning

process. The profession needs to be supportive of their colleagues as they reevaluate and adjust their teaching styles by instigating inservice activities and cooperative endeavors. The future of the profession will necessitate lifelong learning to keep abreast of technological and educational developments.

New communication mediums have changed how individuals acquire knowledge and skills. The study indicates that there are divergent viewpoints on the importance of literacy skills for the future. Some experts view reading as a declining discipline; however, others believe proficiency in reading and writing will continue to be highly valued and in great demand in our technological society. The profession must encourage literacy skills and match learners to appropriate communication mediums to meet their educational needs and learning styles.

The study implies that the profession must be cognizant of the exaggeration of social inequities that exist in our society between those who do have access to new technologies and those who do not. The future of our country depends on developing the learning potential of all citizens regardless of race, ethnic background, or geographic location by providing access

to information and continued learning experiences. The teaching role of the profession will remain crucial as learners choose and employ different information access modes to fit their style and location of learning. The profession must take a proactive leadership role in seeking new answers and solutions to educational problems.

As computer and other means of interactive communication permeate the home, workplace, and other learning sites in the community, the study implies that mass education may become obsolete. However, in the near future, places of information will become more important in our society, necessitating a need to blend and balance expanded traditional roles of the past and present with new learning styles and information technologies of the future. School library media professionals may become information brokers and research advisors in new educational settings where everyone is a teacher and everyone is a learner.

The study indicates that the future of the profession appears promising as the twenty-first century approaches. The profession should continue to grow and emerge if it is adaptive to changes in our society and encompasses new visions in education.

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